ERIC Document Resume	See Instruction Sheet	DATE OF RESUME 6/15/65	DATE RECEIVED

A. PUBLICATION DATA

1. ERIC NUMBER	2. ORIGINATOR CONTROL NO(S).	3. IDENTIFICATION NO.	DO NOT WRITE IN SPACE BELOW
ED000023	7361	N.A.	

4. AUTHOR(S):
Strain, William H.

5. TITLE OF DOCUMENT ADSTRACTED:
Do-It-Yourself Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials

6. PUBLICATION TITLE:
N.A.

7. EDITOR(S):
N.A.

8. PLACE OF ORIGIN
ORG. AACRAO
ST. Ohio Univ.
CITY, STATE Athens, Ohio
TELE. EXT.
INST/LOC CODE

9. PUBLISHER OR SOURCE
American Assoc. of Collegiate Registrars & Admissions Officers

10. VOL.	11. PAGES	12. MO./YR.	13. TOTAL PP.
N.A.	N.A.	57	unpaged

MICROFILM COPY AVAILABLE
YES ☒ NO ☐

COPYRIGHT GRANTED
YES ☐ NO ☒

COPYRIGHT RELEASE FILED
YES ☐ NO ☐

TYPE OF REPORT
PROPOSAL ☐
IN-PROGRESS ☐
FINAL ☒
FOLLOW-UP ☐

OTHER ERIC REFERENCES:

ERIC SATELLITE CODE

B. INDEXING DATA

14. SUBJECT AREA

15. TYPE OF ENDEAVOR
manual

16. INDEXING TERMS (6-12)

manuals	evaluation	credit		
admissions	applicants	foreign education		
foreign students	degrees			

17. ABSTRACT (MAX. 250 WORDS)

A brief manual designed to explain how materials already in print can be used by admission officers in making evaluations of foreign student credentials. Includes such topics as books to consult, how to assemble cases, getting a case into perspective, specific evaluation of the educational reports, evaluation of university degrees and credits, and how to process applications.

ERIC No.

18. SOURCE OF ABSTRACT

C. FUNDING DATA

19. SUPPORTING ORGANIZATION	20. DIVISION OR DEPT.	21. CONTRACT NO. / PROJECT NO.
	22. TOTAL COST OF PROJECT	
	23. DURATION OF PROJECT	U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Office of Education

ERIC Form 1

5-2 R #7361 SV

DO-IT-YOURSELF EVALUATION OF FOREIGN STUDENT CREDENTIALS

HE7361

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
Office of Education

This document has been reproduced exactly as received from the person or organization originating it. Points of view or opinions stated do not necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

WORLD EDUCATION SERIES

A SERVICE OF THE COMMITTEE ON EVALUATION OF FOREIGN STUDENT CREDENTIALS OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

ED000023

THE COMMITTEE ON EVALUATION OF FOREIGN STUDENT CREDENTIALS

Chairman ..... Herman A. Spindt, University of California

Secretary ..... William H. Strain, Indiana University

Member ..... Robert E. Tschan, Pennsylvania State University

THE COUNCIL ON EVALUATION OF FOREIGN STUDENT CREDENTIALS

Member Organizations and Representatives

American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers —Herman A. Spindt, *Council Chairman;* William H. Strain, *Council Secretary;* Robert E. Tschan

Association of American Colleges—Herrick B. Young, Western College for Women

Association of Graduate Schools—Reginald H. Phelps, Harvard University; Robert S. Ford, University of Michigan

Institute of International Education—Donald J. Shank

National Association of Foreign Student Advisers—J. Richard Toven, New York University

Observer Organizations and Representatives

American Council on Education, Commission on Education and International Affairs—Francis J. Brown

College Entrance Examination Board—Frank H. Bowles

U.S. Department of State—Moses Hirschtritt

U.S. Office of Education—Bess Goodykoontz

Do-It-Yourself Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials

1957

Prepared by

WILLIAM H. STRAIN
Associate Registrar for Admissions
Indiana University

Approved for publication by the
Council on Evaluation of Foreign
Student Credentials, meeting
February 16-17, 1956

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

Officers of the Association

1956-57

William Craig Smyser, *President,* Miami University

Roy Armstrong, *President-Elect,* University of North Carolina

Florence N. Brady, *Secretary,* Occidental College

E. Vincent O'Brien, *Treasurer,* Fordham University

Enock C. Dyrness, *Vice-President in Charge of Professional Activities,* Wheaton College, Illinois

Clyde Vroman, *Vice-President in Charge of Regional Associations and Membership Promotion,* University of Michigan

S. A. Nock, *Editor,* Pace College

John M. Rhoads, *Past President,* Temple University

Leonard G. Nystrom, *Member-at-Large of the Executive Committee,* Southern Methodist University

Robert Earl Hewes, *Member-at-Large of the Executive Committee,* Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Committee on Professional Activities

Enock C. Dyrness, *Chairman,* Wheaton College
Ted McCarrel, State University of Iowa
S. A. Nock, *ex officio,* Pace College
Leonard G. Nystrom, Southern Methodist University
Ethelyn B. Toner, University of Washington
Robert E. Mahn, Ohio University
George L. Miller, Wayne University
Alfred Thomas, Jr., Arizona State College
Albert F. Scribner, Valparaiso University
Herman A. Spindt, University of California
D. T. Ordeman, Oregon State College
Claude Simpson, Washington State College
R. Fred Thomason, University of Tennessee
J. Everett Long, West Virginia University
N. M. Parkhurst, Purdue University
Oliver W. Wagner, Washington University
Howard B. Shontz, University of California at Davis

Introductory Statement

This pamphlet, though it reflects a dozen years experience with foreign correspondence and evaluations, came about directly as a result of the meeting held to organize the Council on Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials, March 3, 1955. At that meeting the basic plan for a series of reports on world education, designed to help place foreign students in American institutions of learning, was agreed upon. Realizing that years would be required to complete such an ambitious project, the Council approved immediate preparation of a short manual explaining how materials already in print could be used by admissions officers in making evaluations.

The manual was prepared as planned and distributed in mimeograph form at a panel on "Techniques of Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials" at the Boston meeting of AACRAO on April 19, 1955, and a week later at the annual meeting of the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers. The title *Do-It-Yourself Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials* was suggested by Catherine R. Rich of Catholic University of America, a member of the AACRAO panel. Other members on the panel were Alice M. Bovard, Sarah Lawrence College; Clara Koenig, University of Minnesota; and J. Richard Toven, New York University.

The writer drew material from the ideas and experience of these and many other admissions officers. Comparative education data used are largely from three sources: M. M. Chambers, *Universities of the World outside U.S.A.,* 1950; Martena Tenney Sasnett, *Educational Systems of the World,* 1952; and UNESCO, *World Survey of Education,* 1955. He wishes to acknowledge his debt to two experiences which did a great deal to focus his attention on world education: (1) A three-day Seminar on Foreign Education held at Columbia University in 1948, and (2) a brief period of service at the U. S. Office of Education under the direction of Alina M. Lindegren in 1951.

PRECEDING PAGE BLANK– NOT FILMED

Do-It-Yourself Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials

THE TOOLS YOU NEED

Minimum List. With the aid of as few as one or two reference books you can identify and evaluate most of the foreign credentials that are received at the average college or university. The principal thing needed besides these books is enough grit and gumption to apply them, plus faith in your own ability to do something you have not done before.

SASNETT. Probably the most useful single publication for evaluation of foreign secondary school records is Martena Tenney Sasnett's book *Educational Systems of the World,* whose subtitle is "Interpretations for Use in Evaluation of Foreign Credentials." It was published by the University of Southern California Press in 1952. Reprints made from the same plates in 1956 are available at $14.00. This book has articles on 90 countries. Each article contains a chart showing the educational system of the country from elementary grades through the university, identifying the principal types of schools, particularly at secondary and higher level, and giving the years required to reach the various examinations, diplomas, and degrees that are usually available. Following the chart, the article gives explanatory material showing in most cases the grading system used and the program, year by year, with subjects and hours, for the principal university preparatory curricula.

Each article also gives a brief resume of higher education, teacher training, and vocational and technical training. Under "Higher Education," the tendency is to outline the faculties and degrees of the national university, or some prominent university, rather than to identify and list all the various institutions in the country. Under "Teacher Training," the typical article shows the amount of training in years required for preparation of elementary and secondary teachers and gives an indication of the types of schools in which teachers are trained. In some cases, it gives typical teacher programs. Under "Vocational and Technical Training," the material seems largely designed to help you determine whether the work is of secondary or college level and the extent to which it may contain material similar to that of other secondary or collegiate programs.

CHAMBERS. Probably the most useful single publication for evaluating foreign university records is M. M. Chambers' *Universities of the World outside U. S. A.,* issued by the American Council on Education (1785 Massachusetts Ave. N. W., Washington 6, D. C.) in 1950, and available from the Council at $12.00. This book identifies and describes more than 2000 institutions of collegiate level in 82 countries. Many helpful facts are given about the organization, calendar, ad-

mission requirements, enrollment, curricula, degrees, grading system, library, buildings, and administrative officers of the institutions listed. There is also a short treatise on education in each of the countries covered, and several prefatory chapters on educational conditions in the world as a whole. Since the book places principal emphasis on universities, it sometimes fails to answer questions about secondary education and post-secondary programs in teacher training, technical, and specialized fields. Fortunately Mrs. Sasnett's book is helpful on many of these programs.

UNESCO WORLD SURVEY. Another extremely valuable reference book, is the UNESCO *World Survey of Education* published in 1955. The subtitle is "Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics." It gives excellent information of many sorts about education in all countries, both communist and non-communist, and includes entries for many territories, colonies, protectorates, etc., not separately listed in Sasnett and Chambers. An excellent feature of each article is a very clear chart of the educational ladder including both preparatory and non-preparatory programs from nursery school to the stage of university entrance. There is also a brief but lucid description of each stage of education, and identification of many technical terms. The treatment of higher education is not usually full enough to name and describe separate institutions, so the book is not as satisfactory for evaluation of university records as for evaluation of preparatory records. It is in English and available from the Columbia University Press (2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y.) at $16.00.

SUMMARY. If you have Chambers and one or both the other books you will be able to identify, describe, and measure in years the educational backgrounds presented by most of your applicants. While we hasten to admit that good evaluation involves more than identification, description, and chronology, we are inclined to think the person who has done these three things has gone a long way toward reaching an evaluation.

"World Education Series." The Committee on Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials of AACRAO working cooperatively with the Council on Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials has projected a series of pamphlets describing briefly the educational patterns of various countries and recommending levels of placement for students coming from those countries to enter institutions of learning in the United States. The task is a very large one and years will elapse before even half the countries of the world have been covered. It may be said, however, that a start has been made and that many people and organizations are helping in the work. AACRAO pays tribute to the assistance and encouragement of the other organizations who have joined in the project.

As the various "World Education Series" pamphlets come from the press they will be available through the secretary who may be addressed at the Admissions Office of Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. At the time of this writing, manuscripts on Germany and Canada have been accepted for publication early in 1957. About

twenty-five others are in various stages of preparation. These pamphlets are being written by people who have worked with foreign admissions or international education. Each will contain placement recommendations that have been submitted for approval to the Council on Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials.

U. S. Office of Education Materials. One of the most fruitful sources of reliable and inexpensive evaluation materials is the Office of Education in the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (Washington 25, D. C.). It has for many years published pamphlets on the educational systems of individual countries and on related subjects. The larger pamphlets on individual countries generally cover elementary, secondary, and higher education, as well as teacher education and vocational education. Typical programs are given in detail at the various levels and institutions of university rank are carefully identified. Recent correspondence with the Office indicates that the following pamphlets are currently available:

From the Office directly and without charge:

Education in the German Federal Republic by Gordon W. Prange and Alina M. Lindegren, 1954.

Education in Viet Nam by D. C. Lavergne and Abdul H. K. Sassani.

Higher Education in Viet Nam, a supplement to *Education in Viet Nam* by D. C. Lavergne and Abdul H. K. Sassani.

"American Institutions of Higher Learning in the Near East" by Abdul H. K. Sassani. A reprint from *Higher Education* Vol. VI, September 15, 1949.

(In preparation) *Guide for the Evaluation of Academic Credentials from the Latin American Republics.*

From the Superintendent of Documents (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.) at the prices indicated:

Austrian Teachers and their Education since 1945, 1957, 35c
Education in Bolivia, 1949, 25c
Education in Chile, 1945, 25c
Education in Colombia, 1946, 30c
Education in Costa Rica, 1946, 20c
Education in Cuba, 1943, 25c
Education in the Dominican Republic, 1947, 15c
Education in Ecuador, 1947, 30c
Education in El Salvador, 1948, 25c
Higher Education in France, 1952, 20c
Education in Guatemala, 1948, 25c
Education in Haiti, 1948, 25c
Education in Honduras, 1955, 20c
Education in Mexico, 1956, 55c
Education in Nicaragua, 1947, 20c
Education in Pakistan, 1954, 35c
Education in Panama, 1948, 25c
Education in Peru, 1946, 30c
Education in Sweden, 1952, 30c

Education in Taiwan (Formosa), 1956, 20c
Education in Turkey, 1952, 30c
Education in Venezuela, 1948, 30c

The Office of Education also issues a printed monthly entitled *Higher Education*, which frequently carries excellent articles on foreign education, and a mimeographed periodical entitled *Newsnotes on Education around the World*, successor to *Comparative Education Newsnotes*, which is issued from 6 to 8 times a year and carries information on education abroad as well as on comparative and international educational developments in this country. Single copies of *Newsnotes* are distributed free of charge to educational leaders, such as professors of comparative and international education, admissions officers and foreign student advisers. *Higher Education* is available from the Superintendent of Documents at 75 cents a year, *Newsnotes on Education around the World* may be obtained from the Office on request. The Office has also prepared at different times bibliographies and mimeographed single-page summaries of the educational systems of various countries. Some of these are available from the Office.

IIE Publications. The Institute of International Education (1 East 67th St., New York 21, N. Y.) publishes in odd-numbered years a *Handbook on International Study*. The current (1957) volume is $3.00. It lists briefly a great deal of information about universities abroad where American students may wish to study. Much of this information can be used as background for evaluation, both in the cases of students originating in those universities and students from this country who go to them and return. The IIE is also currently (about February 1957) publishing *A Guide to the Admission and Placement of Foreign Students* which has been prepared by Mrs. Sasnett with the help of a number of people including several representatives of AACRAO. It is, in fact, a part of the "World Education Series" and is planned to give advice and information on many problems of good procedure, reasonable evaluation, etc. Every admissions officer and foreign student adviser will want this book. The IIE also publishes other materials that are helpful to admissions officers including a periodical called the *News Bulletin*.

Other Materials: NEAR EAST. The American Council on Education issued in 1949, a book by Roderic D. Matthews and Matta Akrawi entitled *Education in Arab Countries of the Near East*. This book treats the educational systems of Egypt, Iraq, Palestine, Transjordan, Syria, and Lebanon, as of the time of writing, in a most complete and helpful way and is valuable to offices receiving a good many applications from Arab countries. It is available at $6.00.

BRITISH COMMONWEALTH. Anyone receiving frequent applications from British Commonwealth countries will find a wealth of helpful information in the *Yearbook of the Universities of the Commonwealth* published annually by the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth (36 Gordon Square, London, W. C. 1, England). This volume has very helpful general chapters on admission requirements, etc., as well as specific information about individual institutions

in each of the Commonwealth countries. It is kept up to date from year to year and, being both complete and specific, it clarifies many points that are confusing when presented in more general form.

World Directories. The International Association of Universities (Secretariat permanent de l'association internationale des universite, 19, avenue Kleber, Paris XVI^{e}, France) issues every other year an *International List of Universities.* The third edition is to appear early in 1957. The second edition contains information compiled bilingually in English and French naming 732 universities and 633 technical and professional schools in 96 countries including the United States. Institutions are classified in three types and coded to show dates of founding and a somewhat incomplete listing of divisions or professional schools within each institution. The compilers disclaim any function of accreditation, stating: "The inclusion of a university or other institution does not imply any comment by the International Universities Bureau."

There are three world directories published privately from time to time in Europe that list universities of the world with considerable detail, but all of them emphasize names of learned personnel at a sacrifice of information about curricula, degrees, and other things American evaluators would like to know. They supply little information about university degree programs that is not readily available in other publications. One of these books, *Minerva,* is in German; one, *Index Generalis,* is in French; and one, *The World of Learning,* is in English. All have been revised in recent years.

Medical Schools. If you are involved with the problems of premedical education, you may wish a copy of the American Medical Association's brochure entitled *Foreign Medical Schools,* available from the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals (535 North Dearborn St., Chicago 10, Ill.).

Summary. It is not within the scope of this pamphlet to offer a complete bibliography. The items listed have grown directly or indirectly from the work of great national and international organizations dealing with higher education. They have been found helpful by people all over the country who do their own evaluations.

ASSEMBLING YOUR CASES

Background Information. A great many mistakes are made because the evaluator does not have sufficient information about the age, personal history, and vocational, educational, and professional objectives of the person whose case he is dealing with. These mistakes may be as serious as the mistakes he might make if he knew little or nothing of the educational system through which the person has come. It is therefore important before attempting an evaluation to obtain as much information as you can about the person concerned.

One source of such information is letters from the applicant and from persons who know him. Another source is the application form which he should be asked to fill out. If the application you use for

American students does not contain the questions necessary to get for you the sort of facts you need in the case of foreign applicants, you can very well afford either to prepare some sort of special foreign application, or, if you do not handle enough foreign cases to justify printing your own form, you would be wise to buy printed forms from the Institute of International Education. These forms on thin paper are available at a nominal price. They are designed to get the sort of information you need about the personal and educational history of the applicant. If they come in triplicate you can probably separate the parts so that one set will care for three applicants.

Facility in English. One question that is tremendously important to most institutions is the question of facility in English. One page of the Institute's application form is a report on ability to use English. This may be filled out by a school administrator, professor, or English teacher, or by a United States official. Such reports, unfortunately, involve considerable guesswork and vary enormously in their reliability. It is however very important to you and to the applicant to assess as accurately as possible his ability to profit by instruction carried on in the medium of English. A mistaken estimate of this may be costly, especially to the applicant.

In the case of those applicants who do not write their own letters, and those applicants who write in their own language or in broken English, you need to be especially insistent that the applicant give evidence that he can meet your standards of facility in English. Applicants who, in letters or on the application form, admit to a need for special or intensive training in English are likely to be quite unprepared for study in classes with American students.

School Records. The heart of the information to be evaluated is, of course, the record of foreign schooling. In order to get usable information for evaluation, it is important that you know what to ask for and how to recognize what you want when you see it. You cannot go very far in evaluating a case unless you have assembled a good set of school reports. Beginners in evaluation often find their efforts confused or stopped by inadequate or defective reporting. Some of the most common faults are:

1. Complete lack of school certification.
2. Statements prepared, copied, or translated by the applicant and either not certified at all or certified by the applicant.
3. Substitution of letters of reference or recommendation in place of school records.
4. Documents, sometimes in great profusion, that have some relation to the applicant and his schooling but do not specifically certify the things you most want to know.
5. Documents you cannot read because of the language (or sometimes the writing or the photostating).
6. Documents issued, copied, or translated by someone who does not represent the school or system in which the records should have originated. Often the signature of the translator or copyist

is illegible. If he uses a stamp it may be illegible too. Even if the name can be read there is often no indication of who he is or why he should be involved in the certification.

7. Documents that may appear to be all right except that you are not sure what they mean. They give scant information, often in unfamiliar technical language, so that you need additional background to be able to determine the level, subject, degree, or other vital information.
8. Documents stating that an examination was passed or a diploma or degree awarded, but not naming the subjects taken, the schools attended, grades made, or other information that is vital to your decision.
9. School reports filled in on a printed American form by someone who did not know the meaning or significance of the blanks on which he wrote his statements.

Most people, except a few from war-torn areas, can secure fairly adequate and authentic school records either from the institutions they attended or from some government office such as a Ministry of Education. The amount of detail available varies greatly from one region of the world to another, as does the form in which the information is reported. But the essentials are available and will be furnished if you ask for them. It is definitely better to ask for a copy (with certified translation, if needed) of the original record than to send a blank of some sort to be filled in by a school official who may or may not be able to convert his units and system into American units and system. If you have or purchase application forms in which one page is set aside for school record, it is advisable to remove that page before sending out the form to a foreign country.

Requests for school records should stress the fact that you need an authoritative copy or record of the subjects studied, the grades made, the examinations passed, and the diplomas, certificates, and degrees received at all secondary, college, university, and professional schools attended, and similar records of customary or required state examinations and certificates.

Special Situations: DEFECTIVE RECORDS. In case the school record is lacking or seriously inadequate (see faults 1, 2, 3, 4, and 9 above), it is usually best to delay evaluation until you have written the applicant explaining what you need, and giving him a chance to supply it. Sometimes, of course, some other information already available may convince you that the applicant is unsuitable for the work proposed or for work at your institution, in which situation you may be able to terminate the case without asking for a fuller school record.

UNTRANSLATED DOCUMENTS. In case the problem is one in which you have documents but cannot read or interpret them, you may be able to solve the problem by a little study or by asking help from someone who is familiar with the language, or the country, or the subject, involved. In case you need a translation you have to choose between procuring a translation yourself, submitting the matter to

someone who can make necessary interpretations without a translation, and requesting the applicant to procure and submit a certified translation. Technically, we are justified in requiring the applicant to go to the expense and trouble of putting his papers in shape for our perusal. It is, however, a sad commentary on the linguistic isolation of Americans, that we are so completely unfamiliar with many of the world's major languages.

Most of us can extend our working knowledge of languages considerably if we will make an honest effort to interpret simple documents in languages having some relationship to the languages we know or have studied. If you have studied any of the Romance languages, you ought to try to interpret documents in the others. If you have studied any Germanic language, you ought to try to interpret documents in the others. You will be surprised how quickly you will gain ability and confidence.

FAULTY CERTIFICATION. Documents that are copied, translated, or certified by someone who does not represent the school concerned present a special sort of problem. In some countries it has long been common for a man to keep his school certificates in his own possession as a means of employment or reference. When copies are needed, instead of going back to his school, he has them made by the nearest notary public, scribe, or village official. Sometimes the schools have made no provision for cheap and convenient issue of duplicate certificates, and no provision at all for certificates in English. Sometimes schools have been closed or burned and people have moved or become homeless. We will not for many years be able to get authentic, original certificates for many of our applicants. This means that in some cases we must choose between rejecting the applicant or doing the best we can to interpret the best papers he can produce.

Often in cases where original documents cannot be supplied, it is possible for the applicant to furnish collateral information that is very helpful. Such information is sometimes supplied by refugee organizations, former teachers or classmates, affidavits prepared by the applicant, or syllabi or catalogs from government or institutional sources. Sometimes it takes experience to know what to ask for.

GETTING A CASE INTO PERSPECTIVE

It is tremendously important to be aware of your applicant as a whole person—a personality of known age, interests, ambitions, traits, and background. In connection with gathering his papers together you will have thought of many of these things, but when you start to make your final evaluation you should review everything you have that will freshen and personalize your impression of him. The following steps are not all required or applicable in every case, but a listing of them here may suggest possible good procedures:

1. Read any new correspondence received and review earlier correspondence.
2. Read (or reread) the formal application.

3. Be sure you have identified his educational and vocational objectives.
4. If you require specific information to be filed about finances, proficiency in English, health, or any other point. be sure the proper information or papers have been includea.
5. Note his age and the sequence of his schooling. If several papers have been filed or if the sequence is complicated or confusing, it is a good thing to list in chronological order the applicant's date of birth and all dates of entering and leaving each school he is certified (or reports) to have attended, also dates of receiving each certificate, degree, or license, and dates of employment, if any.
6. Compare this list of dates with the information in Sasnett, Chambers, or other standard references to see how regular (or irregular) the applicant's educational history has been. If there are major discrepancies see if you can explain them.
7. See if you can identify major steps in the applicant's educational history such as: (a) completion of secondary education, or (b) completion of a known university degree, certificate, or diploma, or (c) the education required for a definite profession or government position or license.
8. Try to compare these major steps in his educational history with the major steps in the educational pattern of your own institution or with American education of the type he is considering.
9. Be on guard for the possibility that the person's education may belong to some other pattern than the one you have checked it by. For example, he may have gone to a private school, a foreign school, or a school in another country, or another period than the one you were looking at, or he may have taken an irregular, part-time, wartime, accelerated, non-degree, commercial, trade, vocational, or other special or different type of course.

Once you have sufficiently established an overall picture of your applicant, including his educational history and his proposed objective, you will be in a position to start evaluation. Indeed, you may already have discovered that, for one reason or another, no further evaluation is necessary. It may have already become apparent that your institution cannot give the applicant what he wants at his level of preparation. Or it may be pretty clear that he is not prepared for the sort of college or university or professional study he has asked for. Indeed, he may not be ready at all for college work as interpreted at your institution.

SPECIFIC EVALUATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL REPORTS

By the time you have your case in perspective you will already have specific questions in mind that you will want to check by the official documents. These questions will likely hinge around such crucial points as the following:

1. How does he stand in relation to your freshman entrance standards?
2. Is there any basis for considering advanced standing?
3. How nearly can he qualify for graduate (or professional) standing?
4. Has he completed prerequisites for the courses you require in the field and at the level he expects to enter?
5. How much of what he has done is really comparable to parts of your curriculum at the same level, or for the same professional purpose?

You will probably start at once to find the answer to your chosen question by examining the certificates you have and appropriate reference materials. If you are able to satisfy yourself on the major point concerned, the rest is often easy. The following sections will give some brief suggestions on evaluation procedures in various typical situations.

Evaluation of Secondary Education. Did the applicant complete secondary education of a sort that would have admitted him to a university in his own country? Fortunately, this question is easier to answer than one might at first suppose. Most countries have centralized control of secondary education and not a few have similar control of higher education. In many countries control is so definite that practically all schools follow state curricula and give state examinations and diplomas. In such countries all persons who have completed university preparatory studies in the usual way will be able to show the correct government certificate. Certified copies of such certificates should be asked for and depended upon. If you will look in Sasnett or the UNESCO *Survey* you will see what sort of certificate is standard in the country where he completed his secondary education. Some countries that do not have state certificates have widely accepted university certificates, such as those of the British universities.

Applicants who have not completed a suitable secondary school in their own country ought not in most cases be admitted to American universities. The exceptions one can justify are mostly cases of adults, many of them already in this country as refugees. In some countries, such as Iraq, a person may furnish a high school certificate which specifically says he cannot enter any university in the country until he takes and passes the Government Secondary Examination. In such cases we ought to observe the same requirement.

Standard pre-university education in practically all countries is academic in character and such education is generally most suitable as a background for study in this country. Your reference materials will tell you, however, that teacher-training high schools in several countries give access to the Education faculty of the university, and perhaps, that technical or other special high schools may give access to certain specified faculties. Some caution ought to be exercised in considering these special types of preparatory study. Consider each on its merit.

The real question at issue in all cases is: Does the sort of secondary education this candidate completed fit him for study under American conditions and, specifically, as a freshman in your institution? This question can be considered to better advantage if we divide it into several components. We might perhaps ask ourselves: (1) How shall we rate the system in question quantitatively? (2) How shall we rate it on its essential contents? (3) Do factors such as selectivity of students, unity of purpose, pressure on the students to master a prescribed content in a given time, warrant any special consideration?

Quantitative Features. Any sort of quantitative measurement we might attempt is hard to make and difficult to apply. For many countries you and I lack essential information and, even if we had access to the needed information, we would often find it too complex, and ourselves too busy and too unskilled, to interpret and apply it effectively. It seems best therefore to use a very simple unit of measurement which we can apply rather easily. Such a unit of measurement is the year of school experience. A year of schooling may mean as little as six months instruction or as much as ten, but it still means a chronological year of growth and experience and development for the boy or girl concerned. Anyone having the background expected of an evaluator will, subjectively if not objectively, compensate his evaluations to allow somewhat for differences that he knows will exist between work done in countries whose educational programs are well organized, well financed, well staffed, and countries which can provide only the barest minima.

In the following discussion the reference to educational systems in terms of years of instruction is necessarily oversimplified and cannot allow for many variations that exist. It is quite likely even that errors in interpretation of data have crept in. Even if they have not, the fact that some systems seem to begin formal education at age 6 and some at age 7—indeed some as early as age 5 and some as late as age 8—would alone imply that major differences in the definition of education, or at least in the maturity of students in the same grade level, are involved. The charts in Sasnett's *Educational Systems of the World* and the UNESCO *World Survey* have been used as a basis for most of the estimates, though other information has been correlated. In several cases where a well-established kindergarten, infant school, or transition year extends to age 7 or 8, it has been counted as supplying the first year of schooling. Conversely, a system beginning at age 5 has sometimes been discounted a year. The intent has been to estimate the number of years of organized post-kindergarten school experience the typical student is likely to have had at the time he leaves the high school of a given system. There is no intent to pass judgment on systems of education or the countries that support them. On the basis used, most systems of university preparatory education figure out to either 11 or 12 years of schooling, though a few are as short as 10 years and a few as long as 13. A majority of those as short as 10 years have a provision for exit at that level to certain normal schools, trade schools, and, sometimes, to local universities, while providing a higher level exit for students going to more ambitious programs including foreign universities.

TEN-YEAR SYSTEMS. The post-war system in the Philippines seems to be a 10-year system. Fortunately most Philippine applicants wait until arriving at graduate or professional level before coming to the United States. Applicants just leaving high school ought, in most cases, to be advised to do their first college work in their own country. In Burma what appears to be a 10-year system is the basis for the matriculation examination that admits to the University of Rangoon. Students with so brief an academic experience should be advised to attend an intermediate college, or even to take a degree, before applying for study abroad. The same suggestion in the main applies to high school graduates and holders of various matriculation certificates awarded in India and Pakistan. (The basic school system in these countries appears to be 10 years in most districts, 11 in a few.) The post-war system in Russia seems to have settled at 10 years.

ELEVEN-YEAR SYSTEMS. University preparatory systems of 11 years are very common. Before we become critical of them, we should remember that in many countries the typical student is older than American students at the same grade level. It is also frequently true that college preparatory students have been segregated from others and put under considerable pressure to accelerate their progress. Since the ability of strong students to survive moderate acceleration has been demonstrated beyond doubt, it may be assumed that the stronger candidates from well organized and well staffed 11-year systems will be ready for university study under favorable conditions. The question of whether they should be allowed to try university study in a foreign country will depend largely on four things: (1) the maturity and motivation of the individual, (2) his mastery of English, (3) his meeting of any prerequisites and qualifications for the field of study he wishes to enter, and (4) proper provision for financing such study. In case there is any doubt about any of these or about the person's ability to make the difficult adjustment of schooling abroad, it is best to advise him to continue in his own country to a higher level. Sometimes graduates of an 11-year system will claim to have completed the equivalent of college courses in languages, mathematics, or sciences. Evaluators should be quite wary of agreeing with such claims unless the student can demonstrate his knowledge to the satisfaction of appropriate college examiners or department heads. Examples of countries with an 11-year school system seem to include the following: Argentina, Australia, Colombia, Costa Rica, Egypt, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Iraq, Jordan, Mexico, Nicaraugua, Peru, Portugal, and Venezuela.

TWELVE-YEAR SYSTEMS. The graduates of the 12-year systems have had the same number of years in school as our own boys and girls. The presumption is that they have had a similar chance to be ready for college. Since, however, most of us take only selected graduates from our own high schools, we ought to be even more careful in selecting candidates from foreign schools. We must keep in mind that such applicants will have a language and social adjustment to make in addition to all the other adjustments required of a college freshman. We ought also to look for evidence that the system from

which the applicant comes was able to give him the background necessary for successful university study. There is no magic that makes a school system good just because it has 12 years. Examples of countries with a 12-year system would seem to include Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, pre-war China, Republic of China, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, France, Germany from 1937 to about 1950, Greece, Hungary, Iran, Ireland, Israel, post-war Japan, post-war Korea, Liberia, Netherlands (the hogere burgerschool is only 11 years), Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Scotland, South Africa, and Uraguay.

THIRTEEN-YEAR SYSTEMS. When we take up the question of the 13-year graduate, we are dealing with people more mature than the average college freshman in America. Some allowance should be made for the maturity of these students when we consider questions of adjustment and preparation. But selection still ought to be made carefully. The question of content of the 13th year and the possibility of advanced standing will be taken up in a later paragraph.

"Split-Level" Systems. In many parts of the world, especially in those influenced by British example, there are two levels of school leaving certificate, often dependent on examination, and usually 1 or 2 years apart chronologically. Sometimes, as in New Zealand, Alberta, and Saskatchewan, the lower certificate does not admit to local universities but may as in Saskatchewan admit to teacher-training institutions. In most countries and provinces the lower certificate should be a step to the higher certificate and not a qualification per se for admission to a university. Students who wish a short cut or who find the higher certificate too difficult to attain often apply to American universities, and American educators are sometimes confused as to the evaluation of the certificates they offer. The following statements are for guidance in evaluating such certificates. Being generalizations they are subject of course to the errors that always arise from oversimplification.

SOUTH ASIA. In Burma, Pakistan, and those parts of India where an Intermediate Examination is given after 12 or 13 years of schooling, the Intermediate Certificate provides a better basis for transfer abroad than the Matriculation or School Leaving Certificate awarded two years earlier. In the province of Delhi, where the Intermediate has been done away with and a Higher School Certificate introduced a year lower, the Higher School Certificate may be considered for freshman admission. This change is proposed for other Indian provinces.

CANADA. The provinces of Canada generally award two high school certificates, usually called Junior and Senior Matriculation, a year apart. In Ontario and British Columbia these come after the 12th and 13th years respectively, and the 13th year if taken in certain academic subjects with satisfactory grades, usually requiring provincial examinations, may yield credit for freshman courses in college. (The University of Toronto recognizes this by setting up some of its sequences to begin with sophomore level.) Americans become confused when they turn from this situation to the provinces of Manitoba,

New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Saskatchewan, and find the Junior Matriculation (called leaving certificate in Quebec) given after the 11th year and the Senior Matriculation given after the 12th year. Some Canadian universities require the Senior Certificate for admission and some accept the Junior one, usually with certain restrictive subject and grade requirements. American universities, supposing they are following Canadian practice, often make the mistake of accepting 11th year students without enforcing proper subject and grade requirements, only to find, if they investigate, that they have taken students who were not eligible for the Canadian universities of the provinces from which they came. In considering Canadian applicants at beginning college level, it is best to insist upon a grade 12 Matriculation, or to make sure that the candidate has qualified for regular entrance to the principal university in his own area.

British Areas. In England, Wales, and other British-related areas, a new examination was introduced in 1951 called the General Certificate of Education examination. It may be taken by pupils who will be 16 by September 1 of the year involved. Students may take as many or as few subjects as they wish and standing is certified in those subjects passed. English universities generally require a pass in 5 or 6 subjects including English language, foreign language, and a choice of mathematics or science. Two of the 5 or 6 subjects must be passed at what is called Advanced Level. Students who have passed less than the distribution required for entrance to English universities sometimes apply to American universities. They should be required to meet standards here comparable to those abroad. Before 1951 (and still in some colonial areas) British Empire students used quite often to take a School Certificate examination at a level likely to be lower than the General Certificate of Education. ("Credit" on the School Certificate examination is equated to "Ordinary Level" on the GCE.) About two years later, if still preparing for university entrance, they would take the Higher School Certificate examination (equated to the Advanced Level on the GCE). All these certificates and some others are frequently presented to American admissions officers. They require a good bit of study, if one is to interpret them wisely. The number of subjects passed, the academic character of the subjects, and the grade or level attained all need to be watched.

Curriculum Content. Inasmuch as about 40 per cent of colleges and universities in this country no longer require a subject pattern for entrance it would seem that we might be somewhat tolerant in examining the content of high school curricula abroad. It is, however, a pretty safe generalization that the university preparatory curriculum in most countries devotes more time to languages and other traditional college preparatory subjects than is devoted in the same years in a typical American high school. The difference is made up to some extent by giving less time to social studies and to the laboratory phases of the sciences. It might also be noted that, in many systems, the students have more hours in class than American students have, with greater regimentation and dependence on rote memory of specific material. Many systems have less in the way of libraries and most

have less opportunity for self-direction and spontaneous development. It is unfortunately true in some areas of the world that students do not have individual textbooks, and that no laboratories exist. Students from such areas have not seen, let alone used, the simplest of scientific and visual equipment.

High School Units. If your procedure makes it necessary to show a record of high school units in specific subjects before you can qualify a foreign student for admission, you are in a difficult though not hopeless position. Usually, from the school record submitted (which nearly always shows subjects and sometimes hours) and from the information in Sasnett and other references you can estimate pretty closely the number of class hours in particular subjects. In getting from this point to your list of units, two questions will have to be resolved.

The first of these questions concerns the counting of time and relates to what might be termed a reasonable maximum. American high schools usually limit their students to about 5 (rarely as much as 6) units per year. Even when their programs are enriched with additional fractional subjects, the number of units reported is held down by treating many of the fractions as non-credit items. In describing foreign systems it is common to report all the time spent in non-prepared subjects such as physical education, religion, singing, needlework, and drawing, so that the total hours per week is likely to run in the neighborhood of 30, sometimes even more. This should not be taken as a basis for allowing foreign students 6 or more units a year. You should carefully eliminate or reduce credit in fractional and non-prepared subjects. If you come out with an answer giving your candidate an average of more than 5 units a year, you should review it very carefully to make sure you have included only solid academic subjects and that you have required a full five hours of class throughout a full year for each unit. You may be pretty sure that a school system that requires a really excessive amount of time in class will almost certainly permit a corresponding reduction in preparation. In translating to American units you are therefore justified in assuming that a year of schooling should not be allowed to exceed a reasonable maximum in American units.

Subjects and Years. The second question relates to determination of what is to be included as high school work. Since most foreign secondary school systems include the seventh and eighth (or even the fifth and sixth) years of school, what years are you going to count as comparable to the 3 or 4 years of an American senior high school? If you arbitrarily take grades 9 through 12, or grades 8 through 11 or any other combination, you will soon find your rule is not equally applicable to all school systems. On the other hand, if you try to select certain subjects in whose preparatory value you have confidence, you will find some of them, particularly the languages, start as low as the fifth grade in many systems. It is not likely that you will accept subjects taught at that level as equivalent to regular high school units. You will almost certainly be driven in the end to some sort of compromise. Many evaluators come to the conclusion that the whole

process of seeking units is either unsound or not worth the trouble. A majority of universities do not itemize high school units on the records of foreign students.

LANGUAGES. In most communities of Europe and in many other parts of the world people have continuous contacts with a second language or with several languages, and it is taken as a matter of course that the schools will introduce a second and perhaps a third language in the upper elementary or lower secondary years and that three or even four languages will be introduced by the end of secondary school. People with this impetus and, many times with bilingual or multilingual homes, may reach college age with a considerable facility in two or more languages. Others, however, come through the same secondary instruction with only a smattering of languages. For this reason it is best, if your institution is inclined to allow credit for foreign languages learned at home or in high school, to depend on tests rather than records to estimate the amount of such credit. Also, it should be kept in mind that school systems that spend a great deal of time on language drills, cannot give similar attention to other subjects of instruction. There is not much more reason to give college credit for a third language taken at high school than there is to give college credit for a third laboratory science or a fourth unit of social studies—things that are very common in American high schools.

SUMMARY. Aside from a greater number of languages and more years in each language (though the hours a week may be cut to two or three) most of the 11 and 12-year schools in the world do not do much more than is done in American high schools unless it may be in carrying such traditional disciplines as mathematics to a higher level. Here again tests and placement are the safest measures. You can hardly be criticized for classifying graduates of even the best 11 and 12-year foreign systems as freshmen if you allow them to take placement and credit examinations in subjects that they may have carried to a level higher than is customary in American high schools.

One caution should be observed, however. If you allow foreign students to establish language credits by examination, it is important to place some practical limits. The mere fact that we teach the elementary levels of all our languages in college does not mean that our own American high school graduates can have college credit by examination for the languages they studied in high school. We expect some language study to be earmarked for entrance credit. In the same way and for the same reason a suitable portion of the language studied in foreign schools should be treated as entrance credit. The amount may be somewhat a matter of opinion, may reasonably vary from institution to institution with some relation to the language requirements placed on American students, but the principle should be maintained.

The Thirteenth Year. In the case of 13-year systems we must face the fact that the work of the 13th year may represent a conscientious effort by the countries involved to carry on in local communities something equivalent to a year of college instruction. The present rapid

growth of junior colleges and community colleges in this country puts many American communities in an analogous spot. Where the program is in solid academic subjects, validated by a state examination, and leading into a university system which requires the 13th year as a prerequisite to admission, or gives credit for the 13th year in terms of its own courses, you may feel reasonably safe in allowing junior college credit for the year of work. Such a situation exists in the Grade XIII programs of Ontario and British Columbia in Canada, in the prewar gymnasia of Czechoslovakia, in the German gymnasia before 1937 and in West Germany since the post-war reorganization, in the scientific and classical maturity programs of Italy, and in maturity programs in Switzerland. It is a common practice to include with these the studentexamen of Sweden, the French second baccalaureat, and perhaps the maturity of Finland and the artium of Norway, though analysis of most of these systems brings one to the conclusion that a large percentage of students complete them in 12 years. In the case of Sweden it appears that some school systems take 12 years and some 13 to prepare students for the same final examinations. A similar thing happens in Haiti where students take 13 years to arrive at the second baccalaureat which is equated to the French second baccalaureat for which French students take only 12 years of preparation.

In attempting to evaluate 13-year programs you can make some of the credits (or all of them) contingent upon placement or even upon examinations. Or you can admit the person to your institution with standing to be determined later. In case of serious doubt as to the proper classification it is better to place a student too low than too high. You can shift him after arrival and placement tests to a higher level with less embarrassment than if you have to cut him down. Also, with all the adjustment required in a new country and perhaps with a new language, it is a misdirected kindness to pitch a fellow into classes and subjects that are too advanced for him.

Selectivity, Homogeneity, and Pressure. There is considerable possibility that the factors of selectivity, homogeneity, and pressure in foreign education have been overrated. They are to be reckoned with, however, in the evaluation and placement of students coming from a great many foreign systems. Students in these systems have been pushed and accelerated to the degree that they have a high opinion of themselves, their system, their future, and their capacity to do everything at a precocious level. In dealing with this attitude an evaluator must stand firmly for what he believes to be a reasonable placement based on a fair consideration of all the facts he has. He should not, however, be dogmatic or certain that he has the only right answer. So much of the information on which we base our comparisons is derived from estimates, averages, and approximations that our probability of error is manifest. If we place a student within a year of where he should be, we have probably come as close as can be expected. We are therefore justified in some experimentation in placement and may make a conservative allowance for the high pressure under which students in some countries are pushed into college level studies at high school age. We should, however, be extremely suspic-

ious of any allowance that amounts to confirmation of acceleration amounting to more than one year. If greater allowance is made we should watch carefully to see if student success justifies the placement. If even a small percent flounder, the placement is too high.

It is natural, of course, that people who are spending money and time, which in many instances they can ill afford, want to be placed as high as possible, to get a degree as soon as possible, and to get home to a job at the earliest hour permitted. There is both economic and educational waste in placing them too low. There is cultural waste, poor educational development, and a great risk of complete failure if we place them too high. There is also, though we seldom mention it, the matter of face. If by our placement of foreign students we habitually act on the assumption that foreign schools get more done in fewer years than we do, how are we to explain to ourselves and to our foreign friends that American education really has something of value to offer them? Their very act of coming here is an admission on their part that our system has something they would not get at home. If we believe that we do have something in our system that they need, we ought to let them have the advantage of it in all its leisurely completeness. Even if it takes an extra year of their time, and ours, we ought to keep them here long enough for them to grasp the essence of our system.

Prerequisite Courses. If an applicant wants to take up engineering or some other program for which certain specific subjects such as mathematics are a necessity (or at least a regularly prescribed prerequisite) you will, of course have to analyze his preparatory record far enough to make sure he has had what you require. This does not, however, mean that you must make an exhaustive study of all the other subjects in his curriculum.

Non-Academic or Non-Preparatory Secondary Education. What will we do if we find that an applicant had some specialized form of secondary education that is not normally recognized in his own country as suitable for university entrance? This is a case where the policies of your institution should guide you. It is also a place where you have to be very careful about what you are doing, and check your information in every possible way before you jump into what may be a serious error. The common types of non-preparatory education in most countries are, of course, terminal programs leading to jobs in business, industry, agriculture, trades, and education.

Many of these programs do not include a proper background for higher education and you should be very slow to assume any responsibility for bringing a person from abroad to what is likely to be a disappointing experience for both him and your institution. Besides being largely composed of applied subjects, many such programs are shorter than the regular preparatory program. You will sometimes find them to be part time or very cursory in nature. In cases where the law or practice of the country of origin would not admit the student to a local university, we raise all sorts of doubts and questions about our standards if we bring him to our institution as a regular

student. Of course, if such persons have immigrated to this country and present themselves as adults for programs in state or city colleges and universities, the same principles would apply as for other poorly qualified but resident adults.

When assistance programs bring farmers or technical and professional groups here for further training, we have to make reasonable exceptions. Some of the people in such groups will have had terminal programs at the secondary level. Probably, the most numerous and most justifiable exceptions should be those made in the case of elementary teachers. In most of the world, outside the United States, elementary teachers are trained in secondary schools or in normal schools of the same or even lower chronological level. In many countries people with such training are not eligible to enter the university or may enter only the School of Education. Since elementary education is so vital to the future of the whole world, every possible exception should be made to help upgrade the talent and preparation of elementary teachers in other countries.

EVALUATION OF UNIVERSITY DEGREES AND CREDITS

Preliminary Questions. Perhaps a good way to begin studying a set of foreign college reports would be to ask and answer some of the following questions:

1. *Was the work done in an institution of collegiate level?* If you do not personally know the reputation of the institution, the best approach to this question is to look up the institution in Chambers and, if necessary, in other international directories or suitable references. Although there are many sorts of differences among the various institutions listed it may be assumed that standard references on higher education have established at least minimal standards and done considerable screening in determining which institutions to include. Failure to find an institution listed is not in all cases conclusive evidence that it does not function at the collegiate level, but it would justify your delaying the case until you can make a further investigation.

2. *Did the program followed lead to a recognized certificate, degree, or professional status?* The papers submitted should name and certify any such degree and your reference material should help you to see its place in relation to the university program of the institution and country concerned. In case of a professional status, the answer is not always clear, but references will help. In the case of countries where professional people are licensed by state examination, it may be the state examination rather than a university degree that will be certified. Sometimes this dual system is confusing to us.

3. *Is the work completed comparable in subject matter, level, and objective to some part of the program in your own institution?* Here you are likely to get involved in opinion. In those cases, however, where you have a full listing of subjects, you can compare this list

with your own most similar curriculum and get some idea of comparative content. The objective is easier to assess than the level. If a person has been trained for a specific position such as a civil servant, nurse, pharmacist, doctor, primary teacher, college professor, banker, midwife, dentist, sailor, housewife, or translator of certain languages, we have a fairly definite picture of the objective and, if at all familiar with social, economic, and other patterns in the country involved, we may have a reasonably sound picture of the work done and the minimum training required. In this country, however, where college preparation is required for almost all professional employment, we are apt to forget that in other parts of the world many professional people get their training through apprenticeships or in training schools at secondary or at least non-collegiate level.

In a great many countries secondary school graduation is not required for entrance into normal schools, nursing schools, interpreter schools, home economics schools, business schools, and many sorts of technical and trade schools. In fact the common pattern is for people to graduate from most such schools at about the same age as they would have graduated from the college-preparatory high schools. In checking records for any of these professions, you should make every effort to identify the school and also the level and type of school attended (Sasnett is often helpful here), and you should, as an added precaution, always require evidence of completion of secondary school, and the full chronological list of educational dates. Be sure to check these dates and secondary record and make doubly sure the professional work was not really a part of the secondary program. As a further precaution see how old the applicant was when he entered and finished his professional or technical training.

In evaluating foreign education in medicine, law, and dentistry, we should always keep in mind that most foreign systems put less emphasis than we do on the preprofessional phase. Whereas we have two, three, or four years of preprofessional work in a university, most systems condense their preprofessional work into what they can include in the last years of secondary school and the first years of professional school. For this reason most professional schools abroad have longer programs than we have here, law often being 4 years and medicine sometimes 6 or even 7.

4. *Does entrance into the program normally require completion of the secondary school, or public secondary school examination of the country involved, or an entrance examination of comparable level?* For this you have two frames of reference. First, you can check the papers before you and see if this particular person completed a normal secondary program. Second, you can check Chambers, Sasnett, and other references and see if completion of such secondary education is a standard requirement for entrance to the university or program involved.

5. *How many academic years above secondary level are required for good students to complete the program in question?* Here again you have two frames of reference: the experience of the case before

you, and the information set forth in your reference materials. Usually, if you are reasonably diligent you can get the information you need.

6. *How much pressure is applied in the school system through which the applicant has come?* How much weeding out has he survived to get where he is? Has the elimination been based on stringent academic tests, or does survival result from financial and social support? Some of these questions cannot be answered in every case, or at least not with much certainty. They do, however, represent important facets to be evaluated. In some systems there are definite stages at which large numbers of students are eliminated by severe examinations. If 50 per cent should be eliminated at each stage, those who survive the third stage would compose only 12½ per cent of their original group. A candidate with the lowest passing grade on such an examination might be a B student. Some countries, for example, France, publish figures on the elimination accomplished by their examinations. These figures are interesting.

7. *What parallels can you draw between education in the United States and the country with which you are dealing?* Can you defend a statement that either is a great deal better or worse than the other in such things as laboratory sciences, libraries, languages, accessibility of higher education, or in the preparation and standing of professional groups such as teachers, doctors, pharmacists, nurses, engineers, business men, etc.? Your ability to compare education in a foreign country with that in the United States will depend greatly on your acquaintance with the country concerned. You may have had much or little contact with people from this country and you may have read and studied much or little about the country, its people, and its education. You can keep yourself alert to gather suitable information whenever opportunity presents itself, and you can do as much reading and study as your time and facilities permit.

8. *If the training involved is professional, what more would the candidate have to do before he could practice his profession in your state, or in other states of this country?* Professional associations and licensing boards have generally established objective (or at least specific) standards for determining eligibility for licensure. These bodies have had experience dealing with the problems of personnel educated in foreign countries. By making use of their standards and experience you will be giving your applicant the benefit of a realistic consideration of his educational needs at the same time you are applying to your own problems some of the best expert opinion and assistance that is available.

9. *What has been the success of other students with similar preparation who have attended your institution or similar American institutions?* As you deal with foreign students and watch their progress in your institution you will soon have in mind many helpful rules of thumb to go by. It is, however, important to make tabulations from time to time as an aid to memory. You can also exchange experience with other institutions and can watch for publications giving useful data.

Equivalents for the Bachelor's Degree. A great many foreign systems have been established on the theory that a student can get sufficient general education in secondary school and is ready to specialize as soon as he enters the university. Where higher education has been organized along this line, there is no true equivalent to the American bachelor's degree and any effort to find or establish an equivalent is at best a compromise. The student who comes from such a system generally has at no time in his education experienced the distribution of work in humanities, sciences, and social studies which we require of college freshmen and sophomores, yet in his major and possibly in a minor, he may have done work comparable to American graduate courses in his third or fourth year at the university.

Where this situation prevails the evaluator needs to keep his ideas flexible and think in terms of the overall past and future development of the individual concerned. If he has already specialized to the point where he has a professional status in his own country or is on the threshold of attaining such a status, then it is too late to consider any lack or supposed lack of general education. It is better to make the evaluation fit the candidate than to break the candidate trying to mash him into the mold of the American system. If, on the other hand, a candidate transfers into the American system soon after completion of secondary school and before he has gone too far in specialization to permit an expansion of his foundation, it is best to give him the advantage of the breadth of general education which is one of the strong points in American education.

Before we take up specific cases, one general caution ought to be emphasized. The name of a foreign degree may suggest an American degree that is really quite different in level. For instance, there are bachelor's degrees in high school, college, and professional schools. There are also systems where the first university degree is called the master's or the doctor's. One has to look behind the name and ask what it represents. Then he still has plenty of unresolved questions to consider. In general, it is probably best to assume that the first university degree in another system is the one most nearly comparable to an American bachelor's. After study you may decide it contains too little work—either too short, too narrow, or too elementary to compare with the American bachelor's. Or, you may decide that it is too inclusive, too specialized, too difficult or too advanced to compare with the American bachelor's. But the effort to make the comparison will put you a long way on the road to an evaluation. You may settle for a decision that the first degree in the other system is:

1. Not to be accepted as having any close relationship to the American bachelor's.
2. Somewhat short of an American bachelor's but near enough that the degree may be recognized if the candidate is willing to make up a certain number of hours either in specific subjects or in general deficiency. This solution is usable with a deficiency anywhere up to a full year (30 semester hours) of work. If you are tempted to require a greater deficiency,

you might better accept the person as a candidate for a bachelor's degree.

3. Sufficiently comparable to an American bachelor's to warrant its acceptance as a suitable substitute.
4. Comparable to an American bachelor's plus some graduate credit but not equal to an American master's.
5. Comparable to an American master's.
6. Higher than an American master's.

There are several systems in which the lowest degree (often the only degree given) is called a doctorate and is in a real sense a research degree. In some of these systems the degree is of master's or doctor's caliber, but in others one finds, on careful analysis, that the candidate does definitely less than is required for an American doctorate, and perhaps even less than for an American master's. The shortage may be mainly in general education (for example, he has never done anything really as broadening as is required for the American bachelor's), or in his specialty (where he may have passed fewer comprehensive examinations and done a less exacting series of research projects and papers than are required in the American master's and doctor's sequences). One might make it a general rule not to accept the first degree in another system as higher than an American master's until he has done enough study to convince himself that such a rating is justified.

Specific Examples of First Degrees. The following notations on acceptability of typical first degrees from various countries are meant to be only a starting point for discussion and not a conclusive judgment. They are based on the experience of only a few people with a few cases. They do, however, represent considerable study and thought on the part of these few people. It is hoped that they will prove helpful. The degree referred to in the list is the most common first degree in humanities or sciences at the national or a leading university. Special honours degrees, or engineering, professional, or teacher-training degrees are not always the same, and, because of the complex number and variety of such degrees, they have not been included in this list. The list includes only examples and is not intended to be complete.

Degrees Somewhat Comparable Quantitatively to the American Bachelor's. The following examples have been selected, though it is understood that they differ in many ways among themselves, and in comparison with the typical American degree: Argentina, licentiate; Canada, British Columbia and Ontario, bachelor; Chile, licentiate; Republic of China, bachelor; England, Wales, and North Ireland, bachelor; France, licence; Greece, diploma; Ireland (Eire), bachelor; Japan, gakushi; Korea, bachelor; Lebanon, bachelor at American University of Beirut; Portugal, licentiate; Rumania, licentiate; Scotland, master of arts; Switzerland (French system), licence; and Yugoslavia, diploma.

Degrees Short of an American Bachelor's. So many variables go into a college education that it is, to some extent, unfair to rate degrees on the basis of years required to get them, or on any other simplified measurement. It is particularly unfair, without a good bit of research, to single out certain degrees and say they are a specific amount short of an American bachelor's, simply because they can be earned in less time. Many can be earned in a year less, some even in 2 years less. We must, however, have some standard to go by, even though we may, in part, be proceeding on the basis of trial and error. It is therefore suggested that, except when we have experience or authority leading us to do otherwise, we admit applicants whose degrees required two years less schooling and maturity than an American bachelor's, as undergraduates and require them to do undergraduate work for a year or until they have proved their readiness for graduate study. In the case of applicants whose degrees required one year less than an American bachelor's, the question of making up undergraduate work, and the amount to be made up, might to some extent depend on your experience with previous candidates from the same background. Eventually, statistics should be gathered on the success in American universities of students from different countries, at the various entrance levels. These would help us determine suitable placement.

More Advanced Degrees. The first degrees in several countries are quantitatively nearer an American master's and may be so equated. The following are selected as examples: Israel, master; Italy, laurea (the holder is called a doctor); Norway, candidate; Spain, licentiate; and Sweden, candidate. In other countries, mostly in central Europe, we find a first degree that has a real kinship to the American doctorate and which, in most cases, should be rated higher than an American master's. As examples we suggest the doctorate as typically given in such countries as Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, Netherlands, and the German type universities of Switzerland.

The Placement of Professional People. Many institutions in this country are asked to accept adult professional people singly or in groups, for a short course, summer, semester, or year, with the understanding they will not be degree candidates. Such people should be placed at the level and in the classes that will do them the most good in the time allotted for their stay without attempting a slavish analysis of their previous academic experience. Sometimes, however, a problem is created when one of these people asks to stay or return and assumes that he can go on for a degree at a level you cannot sanction.

In general, when foreign professional people come to this country for study, they expect to be allowed to enter professional studies in their field. When possible, it is well to overlook minor discrepancies in educational systems and allow them to do this. There are, however, limits to the educational discrepancies you can afford to overlook. When a problem of this sort arises it is wise to talk it over with the professional people in your institution or your state rather than to try to rule on it yourself. To some extent you should also be governed

by whether the person will return abroad to practice his profession or plans to practice in the United States. If he plans to practice here, he will have to be placed at a point that will allow him to meet license or other requirements in the state where he wants to settle, even though this may mean disapproval of his previous training and repetition of all or part of it according to American standards.

It is not unusual for elementary teachers, nurses, pharmacists, chemists, engineers, and others trained abroad and admitted to practice in their own countries, to find that by our standards they have had no college or university training at all. It takes honesty, kindness, and tact to deal with cases of this sort. They can be distressing even to the point of heartbreak, sometimes, in the case of middle-aged refugees, widows with children, and heads of families.

Students Interested in Medicine and Dentistry. Admissions officers and foreign student counselors of institutions having schools of medicine, dentistry, law, etc. will be aware of the necessity of giving out only the most carefully factual information to persons interested in professional and preprofessional study in these areas, but officials of institutions giving only preprofessional training may not be so well informed. Foreign applicants must be made to understand as many of the following facts as may be applicable:

1. Secondary education cannot be accepted as meeting preprofessional requirements.
2. It is difficult to get required premedical or predental education in an acceptable form, except in the United States. Medical schools seldom admit a student who has not had at least the final year of his preprofessional training at an approved college or university in this country.
3. Admission to an American institution for preprofessional study in no way assures the student of later admission to a professional school.
4. There is a shortage of facilities in this country for the education of doctors.
5. About half the schools of medicine and dentistry in this country are tax-supported institutions and must give priority to the admission of applicants from the state or district giving tax support. This means that few others are admitted.
6. Persons who have finished medical or dental education abroad can sometimes enter American medical or dental schools at advanced level and obtain American degrees after two years or so of study. In some states this is the only way those who wish to stay in this country can qualify to practice.
7. Persons who have foreign medical degrees and wish to intern or practice in this country should be referred to the Evaluation Service for Foreign Medical Graduates, a new service established in 1956. Its offices are in conjunction with the American Medical Association offices at 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, Illinois.

Students Interested in Law. Law schools in this country do not generally limit enrollment, but they do expect students at entrance to have completed all or the greater part of a bachelor's degree in a suitable area. This means that applicants who have taken a four -year law course in their own country immediately after high school, are frequently admitted as first or second-year law students here. Actually, this works out better than one would suppose, because in most of the world the whole system of law is based on a code or other background entirely different from the Anglo-American common law. Students from such a background cannot do much in an American law school or graduate school till they have started over at a fairly low level and learned about the Anglo-American system.

NOTES ABOUT PROCESSING APPLICATIONS

Foreign Student Adviser Clearance. Be sure your system allows all people who have an interest in selection of foreign students to participate in evaluation and selection processes. In most institutions there is some one person responsible for counseling foreign students and for helping them if they become stranded or in difficulty because of financial problems, government regulations, or personal adjustment problems. Such a person becomes keenly aware of certain danger signals that you may overlook. It is a wise precaution to consult him in dubious cases or even to allow him to read all foreign applications and credentials before a final decision is made. You will probably find that two heads are better than one.

Academic Clearance. It is even more important to be sure that academic placement has been wisely foreseen and provided for. In any advanced or specialized area, the people who must provide instruction and personal contacts are vitally and personally involved and should know in advance as much as possible about the personal and educational qualifications of the students with whom they are to work. In the case of foreign students, there are so many variables, both personal and educational, in the picture, that no selection of advanced, graduate, or professional foreign students should be undertaken without suitable collaboration of the schools and departments concerned. This may be as simple as a general understanding of what may be done, or it may take the form of allowing every case to be read by either or both the appropriate dean and department chairman. When this procedure is followed, the dean and department may each have a complete veto on acceptance, or the group who participate in consideration may sit as a committee. Since a great many uncertainties are involved, and since the student is facing a large expense of time and money, it may be unwise to approve an application which meets any unfavorable reception. This would seem to justify the veto procedure.

Unification of Responsibility. In many institutions the graduate and professional divisions admit students without any consultation with the general university admissions officer, or anyone on the professional counseling staff. This may be a satisfactory procedure for

the admission of American students, but it is unwise in the admission of foreign students. The bringing of students from foreign countries involves compliance with government regulations, the meeting of financial and social problems, and other general considerations which require a specialized, technical experience and a continuity of files and forms which can best be arranged if one person, or at least one office, takes care of these matters for all foreign students throughout the institution. This means that institution-wide centralization is necessary in handling the technical phases of foreign student admission and counseling.

If the chief admissions officer is to be responsible for certifying all foreign admissions it is best to make him also responsible for handling as much as possible of the foreign admissions correspondence and the routing of foreign credentials to the various persons who must read them before a decision is reached. This will help to keep some uniformity and organization in what otherwise can become a badly tangled matter. It will also enable him to keep track of the status of each application and to know when it is time to make official certification of admission. If the chief admissions officer has too many other duties to take personal charge of this one, it should be delegated in one solid chunk to a qualified assistant.

Meeting Immigration Formalities. A new procedure which became effective in April 1956, makes centralized certification of foreign admissions even more desirable than it was before. Under this procedure the "registrar or other authorized official" of the institution admitting a nonimmigrant foreign student must prepare and deliver to the prospective student one original copy of a "Certificate of Acceptance" on a printed form furnished by the U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service and called "Form I-20." These forms in blank are supplied on request by district Immigration Officers to institutions of learning approved by the Attorney General for the teaching of nonimmigrant students. The person filling out the form must not only be authorized by the institution to do so, but he must also have copies of the form and must know the date his institution was approved, the location of the officer who approved it, and the file number used by the Immigration and Naturalization Service for his institution. (The approval of institutions began in the year 1924 and original correspondence is often hard to locate. Some institutions have to call up the District Immigration Office to obtain the needed data.)

The face of the I-20 must show certain facts about the student: (1) his name, (2) his country of citizenship, (3) his date and place of birth, (4) the date on which he is to report for registration, and (5) a description of the course of study to which he has been admitted. The form does not state what to include in this description, but it is wise to name the degree to be sought, the field of study (this may be somewhat generalized, if a major is not very sharply indicated), the length of study anticipated, and the approximate cost of a typical year, semester, quarter, or other session of study. Cost should preferably be broken down to show the amount necessary for fees separately from other costs such as living, books, incidentals, etc. If

any scholarship, fellowship, assistantship or other financial award has been granted this should be clearly accounted for in stating the costs.

If the institution is willing to accept the student with deficiencies in English this should be made clear either on the I-20 or separately. If it seems necessary, a statement can show that (1) the student has been accepted "for a full course of study in English" during his first term, or (2) the institution has made special arrangements for tutoring him in English, or (3) the institution has a program offered in ———— language for which the student has been expressly accepted.

Because the prospective student must surrender his I-20 at the U. S. port of entry, you may properly give him a duplicate for his own personal files. If you do not give him such a duplicate, you should, by all means, give him a covering letter which should state important facts and conditions related to his admission, course of study, date to report, financial arrangements if any, etc. If he requests duplicate copies for any purpose, such as showing to his own government, the duplicates should be copies of this letter and not copies of the I-20. There are many pitfalls connected with efforts to guarantee part-time work to full-time foreign students, sight unseen, and many institutions refuse to make such arrangements. Institutions that offer such guarantees are expected by the Immigration Service to put them in writing.

Students coming to this country under the Exchange-Visitor program and certain other programs sponsored by either or both the U. S. Government and the Institute of International Education are not subject to the requirements of the I-20 procedure. If your institution is participating in one of these special programs you will have received instructions at or after the initiation of the program for the procedures you are to follow.

Technical Suggestions in Regard to Evaluation of College Credit. So far in discussing evaluation we have talked only of completed stages such as various diplomas and degrees. But many people have not completed the degrees they started out to attain, yet they wish to become candidates for American degrees. What can we do toward evaluating their records? There are several helpful expedients.

In some cases we have before us a complete record with subjects, hours, and grades. In such a case, if the work was taken in a recognized institution, you can allow credit to the extent the subject matter seems applicable to the student's American degree plan and to the extent his grades are satisfactory by the standard shown on the transcript or in your reference material. Credit can be subject to later validation, if you wish. One thing you nearly always have to watch is the apparent load carried. If he was in 25 or 30 hours of class meetings each week, you have to trim his credit to a number of hours similar to the maximum or normal load in your own institution. This can be done mathematically by reducing all hours in all courses. Sometimes it is simpler to eliminate some of the less applicable subjects and leave others at a higher valuation.

There are other cases where you have certification that a person spent a year, or two, or three, and passed his examinations in a given list of subjects, but you do not have any information about the distribution of time in the various subjects. In such a case, you might, if all indications assure you he was a full-time student, allot a reasonable amount of time to each subject--taking care of course not to exceed what you would allow in your institution for similar years of study. In the case of part-time study you have to be pretty wary of making guesses or allocating credit.

Sometimes you have nothing but certification of a degree or diploma, with perhaps the name of a major, though sometimes no subject at all is named. In such a case, you may be able from Chambers, Sasnett and other references to form a pretty good idea of the meaning of the certificate in terms of years of study and perhaps even of the amount of concentration involved, but you have to be pretty slow about trying to list specific credits. One device you can follow if you are dealing with a refugee is to let him take examinations. Another device more widely applicable is to ask the filing of additional material. If no other form of direct or collateral evidence can be adduced, the person may be asked to file a notarized statement of his major, minor, years of study, and other descriptive information he may be able to recall.

Estimate of Requirements to Be Met. In some cases an estimate of the courses required and time required to complete a specified degree is of more importance to the prospective student than the estimate of credit already earned. It often turns out that the student coming to this country plans to study a subject he has not previously studied, and which he must for that reason take up at a fairly low level. Or, he may have studied the subject as taught in his country and not realize that it is taught quite differently or contains a different content here, so that prerequisites or even basic courses may have to be reviewed before going into advanced levels. Even if neither of these obstacles lengthens the time required for a degree, there are always the minimum residence requirements and minimum course requirements to be met. Also allowance must be made for delays due to language change, culture change, and to general disorganization and poor understanding in the first few months of study.

In reporting on the I-20 and elsewhere the estimated time required to complete a degree *it is wise to indicate a time or range of time somewhat greater than the mimimum.* For instance, a bachelor's program may require 4-5 years, a master's 1-2, a doctor's 3-5, etc.

Adjustment of Credit after Evaluation. Realizing the guesswork and unresolved inconsistencies that are involved in even the most well-meaning comparisons of education between distant countries, we should be ready at all times to review our evaluations and to change them if change seems to be in order. Sometimes the applicant or one of his friends or one of your own faculty will protest your evaluation before the student arrives. In every such case you should review your

work. If new information or a new point of view you had not adequately considered has been presented, you may decide even that early to revise your estimate.

When the student arrives he may bring additional papers for evaluation or may tell you something you did not know or explain something you did not understand. Such new materials may warrant a change in evaluation. Or, when the student talks to his major professor, or takes placement tests, or after he has been in class a few days or weeks, there may be very tangible evidence that he is more advanced or less advanced than you had supposed. Such material, when reported to you, may call for an adjustment in the evaluation.

At the end of his first semester or first year, his advisor and you could very well go over his record and see if he was correctely placed. You may not decide to change his evaluation, but you will be much better prepared when you next evaluate a record of similar educational background. Some institutions have so much faith in such educational hindsight that they purposely leave the original evaluation incomplete and finish it after a semester or a year of study. This enables the credit to be adjusted in keeping with the student's ability to complete degree requirements, but it seems a little hard on the student who must come and work a semester or a year before he is told the rules of the game he is playing.

PUBLICATIONS OF AACRAO

Requests for any of the following publications may be addressed either to the person indicated, or to the Secretary of the Association, Miss Florence Brady, Occidental College, Los Angeles 41, California.

1. COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY, the Journal of AACRAO. The current volume is Volume 32. Many back numbers are out of print, but others are obtainable. $1.00 each (50c to members of the Association). Address inquiries to E. Vincent O'Brien, Treasurer of AACRAO, Fordham University, 302 Broadway, New York 7, New York.

2. *Topical Index* of COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY and its predecessors (*Proceedings,* 1910-1924; *Bulletin,* 1926-1937; *Journal,* 1937-1947) through Vol. 25. (Volumes 26 ff are indexed in the Summer issue of each year.) Address the Editor at the Office of the Registrar, Pace College, 41 Park Row, New York 38, New York.

3. *An Adequate Transcript Guide,* 1952 Revision. The Association's official guide to the preparation of an acceptable transcript. Howard Shontz, University of California, Davis.

4. *Report of Credit Given.* A summary report of accreditation policies by states. Published annually. Ted McCarrel, University of Iowa, Iowa City. ($1.00 per copy.)

5. *AACRAO Policies and Procedures* (A Handbook). D. T. Ordeman, Oregon State College, Corvallis. $1.00 with order.

6. *College Age Population Trends, 1940-1970.* Ronald B. Thompson, Ohio State University, Columbus.

7. *The Impending Tidal Wave of Students.* Ronald B. Thompson, Ohio State University, Columbus.

8. *Machine Equipment for Efficient Office Operation.* Nelson M. Parkhurst, Purdue University, W. Lafayette, Ind. $1.00 per copy.)

9. *Professional Training Recommended for the Registrar and Admissions Officer.* Ellen L. Deering, College of the Pacific, Stockton, California.

10. *Secondary School - College Co-operation: an Obligation to Youth.* Clyde Vroman, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. (35c per copy; 30c if ordered in lots of over 25.)

11. *A Glossary of Terms Used by Registrars and Admissions Officers.* Robert E. Mahn, Ohio University, Athens. ($1.00 per copy.)

12. *Know Your AACRAO.* Alfred Thomas, Jr., Arizona State College, Tempe.
13. World Education Series: *Do-It-Yourself Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials; Germany*: *A Guide to the Academic Placement of German Students in United States Educational Institutions.* William H. Strain, Indiana University, Bloomington. (*Germany,* $1.00 per copy; *Do-It-Yourself,* single copies no charge, larger orders pay cost of printing.)